

Pacific Islands Vulnerability Assessment

Invertebrate Species Narrative

Gabriella N.M. Mukai^{1,2}, Donald R. Kobayashi³, Charles Birkeland², Jonatha Giddens^{1,4}, and Mark Nelson⁵

Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center
National Marine Fisheries Service
National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration

1. Joint Institute for Marine and Atmospheric Research, University of Hawai'i at Mānoa
2. School of Life Sciences, University of Hawai'i at Mānoa
3. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Marine Fisheries Service, Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center
4. National Geographic Society Exploration Technology Lab
5. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Office of Science and Technology

The Pacific Islands Fisheries Science Center conducted a climate change vulnerability assessment for six species groups in the Pacific Islands region (Giddens et al. unpublished). This data report summarizes the following assessments of each species in the invertebrate species group: overall climate vulnerability rank (certainty determined by bootstrap following [Hare et al. 2016](#)), climate exposure, biological sensitivity, distributional vulnerability rank, data quality, climate effects on abundance and distribution, and life history (see [Morrison et al. 2015](#) for further details).

Biological sensitivity and climate exposure were evaluated and scored by experts for each species. Biological sensitivity is representative of a species' capacity to respond to environmental changes in reference to a biological attribute. The Invertebrate Species Narrative is accompanied by the Invertebrate Species Profile, which provides further information on each biological sensitivity attribute for each species. The Invertebrate Species Profile was used to help experts evaluate biological sensitivity. Experts were also encouraged to use their own expertise and knowledge when evaluating. Climate exposure is defined as the degree to which a species may experience a detrimental change in a physical variable as a result of climate change. The inclusion of climate exposure variables followed four guidelines: 1) the variables are deemed to be ecologically meaningful for the species and geography in question, 2) the variables should be available on the NOAA ESRL Climate Change Data Portal for consistency across different CVAs, 3) the variables are available in the temporal and spatial domains suitable for inclusion, and 4) the quality of the modeled product was judged to be adequate for inclusion. By following these guidelines, the exposure scoring was therefore a quantitative exercise, in that future values could be compared to historical values while incorporating observed patterns of natural variability. This allowed determination of likely severity of future changes in exposure on a species and area specific basis for each exposure variable. Scoring for biological sensitivity and climate exposure is based on scale from 1–4 (Low, Moderate, High, Very High) and scoring for data quality is

ranked from 0–3 (No Data, Expert Judgement, Limited Data, Adequate Data). A high score for biological sensitivity and climate exposure indicates greater vulnerability. Expert Score Plots show the variation in expert scoring (5 experts per species). Scoring was completed in 2018. The mean score for each sensitivity attribute or exposure variable was calculated and a logic model was used to determine the component score for biological sensitivity and climate exposure. For example, if there are three or more attributes with a mean greater than or equal to 3.5, the sensitivity or exposure component score would be a 4 (Very High). Please see [Morrison et al. 2015](#) for remaining logic model's criteria. Overall climate vulnerability was determined by multiplying sensitivity and exposure component scores and the possible range of these scores was between 1 and 16. The numerical values for the climate vulnerability rank were the following: 1–3 (Low), 4–6 (Moderate), 8–9 (High), and 12–16 (Very High).

Hare JA, Morrison WE, Nelson MW, Stachura MM, Teeters EJ, Griffis RB, Alexander MA, Scott JD, Alde L, Bell RJ, et al. 2016. A Vulnerability Assessment of Fish and Invertebrates to Climate Change on the Northeast U.S. Continental Shelf. PLoS One. 11: e0146756.

Morrison WE, Nelson MW, Howard JF, Teeters EJ, Hare JA, Griffis RB, Scott JD, Alexander MA. 2015. Methodology for Assessing the Vulnerability of Marine Fish and Shellfish Species to a Changing Climate. U.S. Dept of Commer, NOAA. NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-OSF-3, 48 p.

Contents

Surf Redfish (<i>Actinopyga mauritiana</i>)	4
Limpet (<i>Cellana sandwicensis</i>)	8
Palolo Worm (<i>Eunice viridis</i>)	11
Black Sea Cucumber (<i>Holothuria atra</i>)	14
White Teatfish (<i>Holothuria fuscogilva</i>)	17
Black Teatfish (<i>Holothuria whitmaei</i>)	20
Blue Octopus (<i>Octopus cyanea</i>)	24
Spiny Lobster (<i>Panulirus penicillatus</i>)	27
Kona Crab (<i>Ranina ranina</i>)	31
Samoan Crab (<i>Scylla serrata</i>)	35
Maxima Clam (<i>Tridacna maxima</i>)	38
Collector Urchin (<i>Tripneustes gratilla</i>)	41

Surf redfish - *Actinopyga mauritiana*

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 79% of scores ≥ 2

Actinopyga mauritiana		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	<div><div>Low</div><div>Moderate</div><div>High</div><div>Very High</div></div>
Sensitivity attributes	Habitat Specificity	2.3	2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Prey Specificity	1.3	1.8	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Adult Mobility	3.3	2.8	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.9	2.2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.6	1.2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	2.4	1.6	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Spawning Cycle	2.7	1.6	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity to Temperature	2.2	2.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	1.9	1.8	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Population Growth Rate	2.4	2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Stock Size/Status	3.1	2.2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Other Stressors	1.5	1.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity Score		High		
Exposure variables	Bottom Salinity	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Bottom Temperature	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current EW	1.3	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current NS	1.2	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current Speed	1.2	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Mixed Layer Depth	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Ocean Acidification	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Precipitation	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Productivity	1.4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Chlorophyll	1.5	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Oxygen	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Salinity	1.5	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind EW	1.1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind NS	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind Speed	1.1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High			

Surf Redfish (*Actinopyga mauritiana*)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: **[Very High]**. (74% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: [Very High]. Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), and Ocean Oxygen (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

Biological Sensitivity: **[High]**. Two sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0: Adult Mobility (3.3) and Stock Size/Status(3.1).

Distributional Vulnerability Rank: **[Moderate]**. Three attributes indicated moderate vulnerability to distribution shift: limited early life stage dispersal, relatively high habitat specialization, and sensitivity to temperature. However, adult mobility was scored as low which may mitigate the propensity of the species to shift distribution.

Data Quality: 79% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

A risk management approach assessment of a multi-species sea cucumber fishery in the Torres Strait predicted a general decline in biomass projections for the surf redfish due to climate change effects independent of fishing pressure [1]. For the eight species modeled by Plagányi et al. [1], temperature was predicted to have a positive effect on sea cucumber growth, which was offset by increased larval and juvenile mortality. There have been no studies pertaining to surf redfish distributional changes as a result of climate change, although it can be assumed that a decrease in the coral-dominated surge zones of barrier reefs, the preferred habitat of the species [2], would have a negative influence on the abundance and distribution of the species.

Life History Synopsis:

The surf redfish inhabits high-energy surge zones of intertidal and subtidal coral reefs, rigidly attached to surfaces exposed to breaking surf [2], with its prime habitat including barrier reefs down to about 6 m on the outer reef slope [3,4]. The surf redfish is distributed in the Indo-Pacific Region from the Pitcairn Islands into the Red Sea [5]. On Saipan in the Northern Mariana Islands, Trianni and Tenorio [6] documented the range of measured surf redfish length to be from 6 cm to 37 cm and measured wet weight range from 50 to 1100 g. From New Caledonia mark-recapture data, Conand [7] estimated asymptotic length to be 34.0 cm with a von Bertalanffy growth coefficient, which indicates how fast maximum length is reached, of 0.12 yr⁻¹ and annual natural mortality rate of 1.45 yr⁻¹. No subsequent estimates of these parameters have been made for this species in part because growth rings are not identifiable from calcareous structures or other hard parts, as with other sea cucumber species. The peak reproductive activity of surf redfish in Guam, as observed by increased mean gonadal somatic index values, is during the spring and summer, corresponding to increased day length and warmer ocean temperatures [2]. This was similar to findings by Conand [8] in New Caledonia and by Ramofafia et al. [9] in the Solomon Islands. Although the surf redfish exhibits annual reproduction, individuals lacking or having indeterminate gonads were found to be present year-round in the populations studied by both Hopper et al. [2] and Ramofafia et al. [9]. Hopper et al. [2] concluded that given the differences in the seasonal range of temperature and seasonal photoperiod between New Caledonia and Guam, and the similar resting periods and periods of elevated gonadal index for the surf redfish in both locations, temperature and photoperiod appear to influence reproductive synchrony in an absolute rather than a

relative manner. The mean absolute fecundity for surf redfish from Guam was estimated to be to be 33.6×10^6 [2], higher than fecundity estimated from New Caledonia by Conand [8]. Ramofafia et al. [10] reared surf redfish to the auricularia and doliolaria stages, with the auricularia stage being reached by 40–70 hours and subsequent transformation to the doliolaria stage in 12–22 days. There is no information on size of settlement for surf redfish, and observation of juveniles in the field is uncommon, although estimates from a New Caledonia reef flat were 2–3 cm [11]. Surf redfish are broadcast spawners, releasing unfertilized gametes into the water column. The distance between the sexes may be negatively correlated with reproductive success [12]; therefore, the species may be susceptible to Allee dynamics [13]. Trianni and Tenorio [6] estimated population size for a recovered surf redfish population utilizing a stratified random sampling approach and generated an average population growth rate from previously harvested habitats of 0.95. Estimated densities from previously harvested barrier reef habitats ranged from 0.3 to 11.8 individuals per 100 m² [6], encompassing the range of habitat density estimates from an unharvested population on Tinian Island that ranged from 0.3 to 5.7 individuals per 100 m² [13].

References

1. Plagányi EE, Skewes TD, Dowling NA, Haddon M. 2013. Risk management tools for sustainable fisheries management under changing climate: a sea cucumber example. *Clim Change*. 119(1):181–197.
2. Hopper DR, Hunter CL, Richmond RH. 1998. Sexual reproduction of the tropical sea cucumber, *Actinopyga mauritiana* (Echinodermata: Holothuroidea), in Guam. *Bull Mar Sci*. 63(1):1–9.
3. Kerr AM, Stoffel EM, Yoon RL. 1993. Abundance distribution of Holothuroids (Echinodermata: Holothuroidea) on a windward and leeward fringing coral reef, Guam, Mariana Islands. *Bull Mar Sci*. 52(2):780–791.
4. Trianni MS. 2003. Evaluation of the resource following the sea cucumber fishery of Saipan, Northern Mariana Islands. *Proc 9th Int Coral Reef Symp*. 2:829–835.
5. Purcell SW, Samyn Y, Conand C. 2012. Commercially important sea cucumbers of the world. *FAO Species Catalogue for Fisheries Purpose No. 6*. Rome: FAO.
6. Trianni MS, Tenorio MC. 2011. Population assessment and evaluation of the recovery of the sea cucumber *Actinopyga mauritiana* (Echinodermata: Holothuroidea) in the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands. *Asian Fish Sci*. 24:125–139.
7. Conand C. 1989. Les holothuries aspidochiotes du lagon de Nouvelle-Calédonie: biologie, écologie et exploitation. PhD Dissertation, Université de Bretagne Occidentale:Brest. Available from: <https://www.documentation.ird.fr/hor/fdi:26386>
8. Conand C. 1993. Reproductive biology of the holothurians from the major communities of the New Caledonian Lagoon. *Mar Biol*. 116(3):439–450.
9. Ramofafia C, Byrne M, Battaglene S. 2001. Reproductive biology of the intertidal sea cucumber *Actinopyga mauritiana* in the Solomon Islands. *J Mar Biol Assoc UK*. 81(3):523–531.

10. Ramofafia C, Byrne M, Battaglione SC. 2003. Development of three commercial sea cucumbers, *Holothuria scabra*, *H. fuscogilva* and *Actinopyga mauritiana*: larval structure and growth. *Mar Freshw Res.* 54(5):657–667.
11. Shiell G. 2004. Field observations of juvenile sea cucumbers. *SPC beche-de-mer Inform Bull.* 20:6–11.
12. Richmond R, Hopper D, Martinez P. 1996. The biology and ecology of sea cucumbers. In: Richmond R, editor. *Suggestions for the management of sea cucumber resources in Micronesia, Results of the workshop, A regional management plan for a sustainable sea cucumber fishery for Micronesia.* University of Guam Laboratory Technical Report 101. Guam:University of Guam. pp. 7–31.
13. Trianni MS, Bryan PG. 2004. Survey and estimates of commercially viable populations of the sea cucumber *Actinopyga mauritiana* (Echinodermata: Holothuroidea), on Tinian island, Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands. *Pac Sci.* 58(1):91–98.












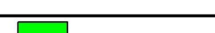



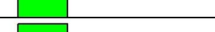










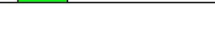

Limpet - *Cellana sandwicensis*

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Very High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 32% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Cellana sandwicensis</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	
Sensitivity attributes	Habitat Specificity	3.6	2.8		<div><div>Low</div><div>Moderate</div><div>High</div><div>Very High</div></div>
	Prey Specificity	3.5	2.8		
	Adult Mobility	3.7	2.8		
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	3.2	2.6		
	Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.3	1.6		
	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	2.8	2		
	Spawning Cycle	3.4	2.6		
	Sensitivity to Temperature	3.6	2.2		
	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	4	2.6		
	Population Growth Rate	1.8	1.4		
	Stock Size/Status	3	2		
	Other Stressors	2.8	1.8		
	Sensitivity Score		Very High		
Exposure variables	Bottom Salinity	1	3		
	Bottom Temperature	1	3		
	Current EW	1	3		
	Current NS	1	3		
	Current Speed	1	3		
	Mixed Layer Depth	1	3		
	Ocean Acidification	4	3		
	Precipitation	1	3		
	Productivity	1.3	3		
	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3		
	Surface Chlorophyll	1.1	3		
	Surface Oxygen	4	3		
	Surface Salinity	1	3		
	Wind EW	1	3		
	Wind NS	1	3		
	Wind Speed	1	3		
	Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High			

Limpet (*Cellana sandwicensis*)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: **[Very High]**. (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: **[Very High]**. Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), and Ocean Oxygen (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

Biological Sensitivity: **[Very High]**. Seven sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0. The highest scores were for Habitat Specificity (3.6), Adult Mobility (3.7), and Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification (4.0).

Distributional Vulnerability Rank: **[Low]**. Three attributes indicated low vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, and high habitat specialization. Sensitivity to temperature was the only attribute ranked high.

Data Quality: 32% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Cellana sandwicensis a benthic species, resides in the rocky intertidal region in the lower to mid-intertidal zone and is one of three endemic limpet species in Hawai'i. They have been identified from the island of Hawai'i (19°00'N, 155°40'W) to Puhahonu (25°01'N, 167°59'W) [1]. Sea level rise, development, pollution, and loss of habitat are anticipated threats to *C. sandwicensis*. Sea level rise could cause shifts in their habitat. They are especially vulnerable to changes to their habitat since adults are not highly mobile. Ocean acidification is also a potential threat as their shells are made of calcium carbonate. Although not reported, their limited mobility would necessitate sufficient population densities for reproduction (K Springer, personal communication). Consequently, climate effects on adult abundance may in turn effect reproduction. Climate effects would be further compounded by heavy fishing pressure. More research is needed to understand the impacts of nearshore habitat disturbance and destruction.

Life History Synopsis:

Spawning for *Cellana sandwicensis* ('Opihi 'Ālinalina in Hawaiian) occurs around December, with gonadosomatic index increasing from October to February [2]. The spawning period is thought to be near the new moon [3]. When spawning occurs, gametes are released into the water where external fertilization takes place [4]. *C. sandwicensis* are believed to be gonochoristic; however, Mau [2] reported the presence of a hermaphrodite. This may indicate *C. sandwicensis* are sequential hermaphrodites, but further investigation is needed [2]. The larval duration is short, with lecithotrophic larvae settling within 4 days [2,4]. After settling in the lower to mid-intertidal zone, they grow 4 to 5 mm per month until they reach 20 mm [5]. The limpets then grow 2 to 3 mm per month [5]. According to the study from Mau [2], *C. sandwicensis* reach maturity at around 21 mm or 8 to 9 months and can grow to nearly 70 mm. *C. sandwicensis* consume crustose coralline algae and benthic substrate (K Springer, personal communication). The von Bertalanffy growth coefficient, which indicates how fast maximum length is reached, was reported to be 0.0371 yr⁻¹ [2]. Natural mortality was not reported. Known predators include *Neothais harpa*, *Purpura aperta*, *Drupa morum*, and *Drupa ricina* (K Springer, personal communication).

C. sandwicensis have a weaker population structure within the main Hawaiian Islands and between the main Hawaiian Islands and the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands. Biogeographical range and microhabitat

use were associated with dispersal estimates. However, minimum pelagic larval duration was a poor predictor of population partitioning [1].

References

1. Bird CE, Holland BS, Bowen BW, Toonen RJ. 2007. Contrasting phylogeography in three endemic Hawaiian limpets (*Cellana* spp.) with similar life histories. *Mol Ecol.* 16(15):3173–3186.
2. Mau A. 2019. The aquaculture and biology of ‘opihi ‘alinalina (*Cellana sandwicensis*). Ph.D. Dissertation, The University of Hawai‘i. Available from: https://scholarspace.manoa.hawaii.edu/bitstream/10125/66218/Mau_hawaii_0085A_10500.pdf
3. Tom SK. 2011. An investigation of the cultural use and population characteristics of ‘opihi (Mollusca: *Cellana* spp.) at Kalaupapa National Historical Park. M.Sc. Thesis, The University of Hawai‘i, Hilo.
4. Ruppert EE, Fox RS, Barnes RD. 2004. *Invertebrate Zoology: A functional evolutionary approach*. 7th ed. Belmont, CA: Thomson-Brooks/Cole. pp. 990.
5. Kay EA, Corpuz GC, Magruder WH. 1982. ‘Opihi. Their biology and culture. Report of the Aquaculture Development Program, Department of Land and Natural Resources. Honolulu, HI.

Palolo worm - *Eunice Viridis*

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate

Climate Exposure = Very High

Data Quality = 25% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Eunice Viridis</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	<div><div>Low</div><div>Moderate</div><div>High</div><div>Very High</div></div>
Sensitivity attributes	Habitat Specificity	2.3	2.8	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Prey Specificity	1.5	2.2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Adult Mobility	3.4	2.6	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	2.8	1	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.3	1	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	2.3	2.2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Spawning Cycle	3	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity to Temperature	2.4	2.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	1.2	2.2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Population Growth Rate	1.8	0.8	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Stock Size/Status	2.8	1.8	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Other Stressors	1.4	1.6	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity Score		Moderate		
Exposure variables	Bottom Salinity	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Bottom Temperature	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current EW	1.3	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current NS	1.3	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current Speed	1.3	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Mixed Layer Depth	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Ocean Acidification	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Precipitation	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Productivity	1.5	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Chlorophyll	1.5	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Oxygen	3.8	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Salinity	1.7	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind EW	1.1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind NS	1.1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind Speed	1.1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High			

Palolo Worm (*Eunice viridis*)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: **[High]**. (63% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: **[Very High]**. Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), and Ocean Oxygen (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

Biological Sensitivity: **[Moderate]**. One sensitivity attribute scored above a 3.0: Adult Mobility (3.4). Dispersal of Early Life Stages (2.8) and Stock Size/Status (2.8) also ranked high.

Distributional Vulnerability Rank: **[Low]**. All four attributes indicated low vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, relatively high habitat specialization, and sensitivity to temperature.

Data Quality: 25% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Eunice viridis live in the shallow waters of tropical coral reefs and inhabits crevices and cavities within the reef. The palolo worm can be found in Indonesia, Vanuatu, Fiji, Samoa, and American Samoa [1]. Over-harvesting is thought to have caused local extinction in northwestern Upolu [1,2]. This species may not be directly affected by ocean acidification, but further investigation is needed to understand potential consequences. *E. viridis* inhabit tunnels in coral limestone which would be impacted by ocean acidification [3]. Other potential environmental stressors on the palolo worm are not reported.

Life History Synopsis:

Aggregations of *E. viridis* spawn during the second or third day after the third quarter of the moon in October or November in a synchronized manner. The worms develop segments which become engorged with sperm and eggs. At sunrise, the segments separate and rise to the surface where the gametes are released. Spawning occurs for several nights. The mechanisms or triggers that induce spawning are not known [1,4]. During spawning, the segments can be harvested for consumption [1,3]. Other early life history traits are not reported for *E. viridis*. Adult palolo worms gnaw long tunnels through coral limestone where symbiotic algae occur [3]. It is thought that the algae is the main source of nutrition [3]. Adults are mobile but limited by physical constraints.

References

1. World Conservation Monitoring Centre. *Eunice viridis*;1996 [cited 2017 Oct 23]. Database: The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species [Internet]. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2305/IUCN.UK.1996.RLTS.T8261A12903350.en>.
2. Samoilys M, Carlos G. 1990. A survey of reef fish stocks in western Samoa: Application of underwater visual census methods. A report prepared for the Forum Fisheries Agency, Honiara, Solomon Islands and the Government of Samoa. FAO/UNDP SAM/89/002. Field Report No.6.
3. Caspers H. 1984. Spawning periodicity and habitat of the palolo worm *Eunice viridis* (Polychaeta: Eunicidae) in the Samoan Islands. Mar Biol. 79:229–236.

4. Craig P. 2009. Natural history guide to American Samoa. In Craig P, editor. Pago Pago: National Park Service.

Black sea cucumber - *Holothuria atra*

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High ■

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 89% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Holothuria atra</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	
Sensitivity attributes	Habitat Specificity	1.5	2.7	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	<div><div></div> Low</div> <div><div></div> Moderate</div> <div><div></div> High</div> <div><div></div> Very High</div>
	Prey Specificity	1.3	2.3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Adult Mobility	3.4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	2.4	2.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.6	1.7	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	2.4	2.2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Spawning Cycle	2.7	2.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity to Temperature	2.2	2.6	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	2.4	2.3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Population Growth Rate	2.2	1.8	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Stock Size/Status	1.6	2.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Other Stressors	1.9	1.2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity Score		Moderate		
Exposure variables	Bottom Salinity	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Bottom Temperature	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current EW	1.3	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current NS	1.2	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current Speed	1.2	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Mixed Layer Depth	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Ocean Acidification	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Precipitation	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Productivity	1.3	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Chlorophyll	1.4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Oxygen	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Salinity	1.5	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind EW	1.1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind NS	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind Speed	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High			

Black Sea Cucumber (*Holothuria atra*)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: **[High]**. (95% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: **[Very High]**. Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), and Ocean Oxygen (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

Biological Sensitivity: **[Moderate]**. Adult mobility is the only Sensitivity Attribute that scored above a 3.0 due to the limited home range of this species.

Distributional Vulnerability Rank: **[High]**. Three attributes indicated moderate vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, and relatively high habitat specialization.

Data Quality: 67% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Holothuria atra, the most abundant [1] and most widely distributed of all commercially exploited holothuroids, are found all the way from the Red Sea and Madagascar in the west to Mexico and the Galápagos Islands in the east [2]. Asexual reproduction by fission is especially prevalent in shallow habitats for *H. atra* [1]. This form of reproduction is much more reliable in maintaining local populations, even when overexploited, than periodic spawning of gametes. Also, the populations in shallow water are frequently subjected to warm water and, therefore, have adapted to fluctuations in water temperature. However, spawning most often occurs in the warm season and fission in the cool season. Warming may have greater effect on asexual reproduction because fission is associated with relatively cool water. Therefore, it is ironic that the warming climate will likely directly affect the traits that make *H. atra* different from most other holothuroids and make it the most abundant holothuroid. Warm seawater will force *H. atra* into deeper water where it grows larger and relies more on reproduction by spawning.

Life History Synopsis:

Holothuria atra, *H. edulis*, and *Stichopus chloronotus* characteristically reproduce asexually by fission when in shallow water and tend to reproduce sexually by broadcast spawning in deeper waters where they grow larger. This may make them less susceptible to the Allee effect than most other holothuroid species because they can more reliably maintain local populations in greater abundance by asexual reproduction.

H. atra are widely distributed locally among habitats from the inner reef flats and lagoons to the forereef slopes, usually from 0 to 20 m depth, but occasionally down to 30 m. *H. atra* have been naturally exposed to high seawater temperatures at low tides on inner reef flats. At depth on the forereef slope, *H. atra* tend to grow larger and reproduce sexually. On the reef flats or other nearby inshore waters, this species is usually abundant, but individuals remain small and do not reproduce sexually even though their gonads may be mature. Harsh conditions are often found in shallow water in the shoreward edge of the reef flat, perhaps allowing preadaptation to widespread climate change.

H. atra are relatively resilient to overharvesting due to asexual reproduction by fission and not being a favored species to harvest for food. *H. atra* are commonly taken when other species are scarce, but

seldom mentioned in articles discussing the various species of holothuroids taken for food [3]. In others they are categorized as having low commercial value [4]. Unfortunately, when other species are extirpated by overharvest, *H. atra* are then taken in abundance.

References

1. Conand C. 1996. Asexual reproduction by fission in *Holothuria atra*: Variability of some parameters in populations from the tropical Indo-Pacific. *Oceanol Acta*. 19(3–4):209–16.
2. Purcell SW, Samyn Y, Conand C. 2012. Commercially important sea cucumbers of the world. FAO Species Catalogue for Fisheries Purpose No. 6. Rome: FAO.
3. Purcell S, Polidoro B, Hamel JF, Gamboa R, Mercier A. 2014. The cost of being valuable: Predictors of extinction risk in marine invertebrates exploited as luxury seafood. *Proc Biol Sci*. 281:20133296.
4. Muthiga N, Conand C. 2013. Sea cucumbers in the western Indian ocean Improving management of an important but poorly understood resource. Zanzibar:WIOMSA.

White teatfish - *Holothuria fuscogilva*

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Holothuria fuscogilva</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	
Sensitivity attributes	Habitat Specificity	1.8	2.8		<div>Low</div> <div>Moderate</div> <div>High</div> <div>Very High</div>
	Prey Specificity	1.3	2.4		
	Adult Mobility	3.4	2.8		
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.9	2.4		
	Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.1	1.6		
	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	2.2	2		
	Spawning Cycle	2.8	2.2		
	Sensitivity to Temperature	2.2	2.6		
	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	1.8	2.2		
	Population Growth Rate	2.6	2		
	Stock Size/Status	3.2	2.2		
	Other Stressors	1.7	1.4		
	Sensitivity Score		High		
Exposure variables	Bottom Salinity	1	3		
	Bottom Temperature	1	3		
	Current EW	1.3	3		
	Current NS	1.2	3		
	Current Speed	1.2	3		
	Mixed Layer Depth	1	3		
	Ocean Acidification	4	3		
	Precipitation	1	3		
	Productivity	1.4	3		
	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3		
	Surface Chlorophyll	1.4	3		
	Surface Oxygen	4	3		
	Surface Salinity	1.4	3		
	Wind EW	1.1	3		
	Wind NS	1	3		
	Wind Speed	1.1	3		
	Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High			

White Teatfish (*Holothuria fuscogilva*)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: **[Very High]**. (88% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: **[Very High]**. Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), and Ocean Oxygen (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

Biological Sensitivity: **[High]**. Two sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0: Adult Mobility (3.4) and Stock Size/Status (3.2).

Distributional Vulnerability Rank: **[High]**. Three attributes indicated high vulnerability to distribution shift: limited early life stage dispersal, relatively high habitat specialization, and sensitivity to temperature. However, adult mobility was scored as low which may temper the propensity of the species to shift distribution.

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Holothuria fuscogilva are remarkably widely distributed in the Pacific and Indian Oceans from the Red Sea and Madagascar in the west to Easter Island and Pitcairn Island in the east, with latitudes extending from 22°N (Hong Kong) to 31.5°S (Lord Howe Island). However, the IUCN report on endangered species notes that overharvesting of *H. fuscogilva* has severely fragmented populations and CITES [1] calculated from several studies that “For the species *Holothuria (Microthele) fuscogilva*, the density of its populations does not exceed 40 individuals per hectare”, which is 0.004 per m² or one every 250 m² in the Indo-Pacific. *H. fuscogilva* are slow moving and potentially vulnerable to Allee effects which reduces the chance for successful fertilization during spawning if the population is too sparse to effectively aggregate for spawning. *H. fuscogilva* will be substantially more resilient to climate change if management allows populations to remain at densities that allow aggregations of at least 0.06–0.25 per m² that allow them to spawn within 2–4 m of each other for successful fertilization and population recovery [2-5].

Life History Synopsis:

H. fuscogilva, listed as Vulnerable in the IUCN Red List of threatened species [6], are especially vulnerable because of their reproductive biology. Compared to most other holothuroids, they have late sexual maturity, low fecundity, and spawn only once or twice a year [7,8]. However, the most serious detrimental trait is their low motility. Sessile marine animals need to be within 2–4 m of each other for successful fertilization [2-5]. Although holothuroids are motile, they are very slow and are thought not to travel large distances. *H. scabra* aggregate in aquaria for spawning in response to the lunar cycle [9]. This surely happens in the field under natural or unharvested conditions, but when populations of large holothuroids are harvested on or near coral reefs, they are reduced to densities of less than 0.004 per m² [1].

H. fuscogilva species are high-priced tropical benthic resources with an average price in Hong Kong of U.S.\$ 192 kg⁻¹ and with prices up to U.S.\$ 274 kg⁻¹ [10]. They have been overharvested throughout most of their range. The biology of holothuroids makes the economics of extractive harvest favor overharvesting or even liquidation. When harvested on a large scale, it takes decades for the population to recover (for documentation, refer to the discussion of *H. whitmaei*). The rates of recruitment are too

irregular and the growth of holothuroids is too slow to sustain the overhead of the process of harvesting, transporting, and marketing. The average growth in interest of the capital gained by selling the holothurians is greater than the recruitment and growth of the holothurian population so economics favors liquidation of the resource (Anonymous 2000). Subsistence does not involve the major expenses of travel, transporting to market, or marketing. If the harvest of holothuroids is confined to subsistence, it might be possible to have a sustainable use of holothuroid resources.

References

1. CITES. 2018. Species specific matters Maintenance of the Appendices Proposals for possible consideration at CoP18 (AC30 Doc. 30.1); 2018 July 16-21; Geneva, Switzerland. Available from: <https://cites.org/sites/default/files/eng/com/ac/30/E-AC30-30-01.pdf>
2. Coma R, Lasker HR. 1997. Small-scale heterogeneity of fertilization success in a broadcast spawning octocoral. *J Exp Mar Biol Ecol.* 214(1):107–120.
3. Lacks AL. 2000. Reproductive ecology and distribution of the scleractinian coral *Fungia scutaria* in Kane’ohe Bay, O’ahu, Hawai’i. M.Sc. Thesis, The University of Hawaii. Available from: https://scholarspace.manoa.hawaii.edu/bitstream/10125/16333/uhm_ma_3555_r.pdf
4. Levitan DR, Fukami H, Jara J, Kline D, McGovern TM, McGhee KE, Swanson CA, Knowlton N. 2004. Mechanisms of reproductive isolation among sympatric broadcast-spawning corals of the *Montastraea annularis* species complex. *Evolution.* 58(2):308–23.
5. Oliver J, Babcock R. 1992. Aspects of the fertilization ecology of broadcast spawning corals: Sperm dilution effects and in situ measurements of fertilization. *Biol Bull.* 183(3):409–417.
6. Conand C, Polidoro B, Mercier A, Gamboa R, Hamel J, Purcell S. 2014. L’évaluation des holothuries aspidochirotes pour la Liste rouge de l’UICN et ses implications. *Le Bêche-de-mer, Bull la CPS.* 34:3–7.
7. Conand C. 1990. The fishery resources of Pacific Island countries, part 2. Holothurians. FAO Fisheries Technical Paper. No. 272.2. Rome:FAO. pp. 143.
8. Reichenbach N. 1999. Ecology and fishery biology of *Holothuria fuscogilva* (Echinodermata : Holothuroidea) in the Maldives, Indian Ocean. *Bull Mar Sci.* 64(1):103–113.
9. Mercier A, Battaglene SC, Hamel JF. 2000. Periodic movement, recruitment and size-related distribution of the sea cucumber *Holothuria scabra* in Solomon Islands. *Hydrobiologia.* 440(1):81–100.
10. Purcell SW. 2014. Value, market preferences and trade of beche-de-mer from Pacific Island sea cucumbers. *PLoS One.* 9(4):e95075.

Black teatfish - *Holothuria whitmaei*

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High

Biological Sensitivity = High

Climate Exposure = Very High

Data Quality = 89% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Holothuria whitmaei</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	
Sensitivity attributes	Habitat Specificity	1.7	2.6		Low Moderate High Very High
	Prey Specificity	1.1	2.4		
	Adult Mobility	3.5	2.8		
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.8	2.6		
	Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.1	1.6		
	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	3.2	2		
	Spawning Cycle	2.6	2.4		
	Sensitivity to Temperature	2.5	2.8		
	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	2	2.4		
	Population Growth Rate	2.6	1.8		
	Stock Size/Status	3.4	2.2		
	Other Stressors	2	1.6		
	Sensitivity Score		High		
Exposure variables	Bottom Salinity	1	3		
	Bottom Temperature	1	3		
	Current EW	1.2	3		
	Current NS	1.1	3		
	Current Speed	1.1	3		
	Mixed Layer Depth	1	3		
	Ocean Acidification	4	3		
	Precipitation	1	3		
	Productivity	1.3	3		
	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3		
	Surface Chlorophyll	1.4	3		
	Surface Oxygen	3.9	3		
	Surface Salinity	1.6	3		
	Wind EW	1.1	3		
	Wind NS	1	3		
	Wind Speed	1	3		
	Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High			

Black Teatfish (*Holothuria whitmaei*)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: **[Very High]**. (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: **[Very High]**. Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), and Ocean Oxygen (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

Biological Sensitivity: **[High]**. Three sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0. These were: Adult Mobility (3.5), Complexity in Reproductive Strategy (3.2), and Stock Size/Status (3.4).

Distributional Vulnerability Rank: **[High]**. Three attributes indicated moderate vulnerability to distribution shift: limited early life stage dispersal, and relatively high habitat specialization, and sensitivity to temperature. However, adult mobility was scored as low which may mitigate the propensity of the species to shift distribution.

Data Quality: 89% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Holothuria whitmaei are widely distributed in the tropical Pacific, with a range extending from western Australia to Hawai'i, south to Lord Howe Island 31.5°S, and as far east as Pitcairn and Easter islands. DNA studies found that populations of *H. whitmaei* on reefs in the Great Barrier Reef are interconnected and populations in western Australia and on reefs in the Coral Sea are possibly the sources of recruits [1,2]. This is remarkable considering the low motility of adults and the relatively short pelagic larval duration. Recent studies on the potential effects of climate change on fisheries species including holothuroids determined that, being a winter spawner, the reproductive success of black teatfish may be negatively affected by seawater warming. These effects will be evident first in areas nearer the equator [3,4].

Life History Synopsis:

Listed as Endangered on the IUCN Red List, *Holothuria whitmaei* [5] is one of the most commercially valuable holothuroid species (average price in Hong Kong is U.S.\$ 180 kg⁻¹, maximum U.S.\$ 230 kg⁻¹ [6]) and has been overharvested throughout most of its range. A moratorium has been put on harvesting this species on the Great Barrier Reef as it was reduced there by 80%. There has not yet been any sign of recovery which has been predicted to take decades [7]. Likewise, harvesting *H. whitmaei* was banned in the Torres Strait in 2003, yet there are no signs of recovery to date. Records from 1922–1936 showed 30,743,460 holothuroids taken from Micronesia, especially from Chuuk. In 1988, eight sites around Chuuk were surveyed for holothuroids, but only two individuals of *H. whitmaei* (called *H. nobilis* in the records but now known to be separate species) were found [8], indicating no recovery for at least 42 years. Furthermore, a survey conducted in 2013 reported only a few individuals of *H. whitmaei* in Chuuk [9].

It is probably the reproductive biology of *H. whitmaei* that led to the species becoming Endangered. Compared to most other holothuroids, they mature slowly, have low fecundity, and spawn only once or twice a year [10]. However, the most serious detrimental trait is low motility. Sessile marine animals need to be within 2–4 m of each other for successful fertilization [11–14]. *H. scabra* have been found to aggregate in aquaria for spawning in response to the lunar cycle [15]. This surely happens in the field under natural or unharvested conditions, but when populations of large holothuroids are harvested on or near coral reefs, they are reduced to densities of less than 0.004 per m² [16]. Kinch et al. [17]

determined the population density of *H. whitmaei* in the Pacific to be no more than 12 individuals per hectare, or 0.0012 per m² or one individual per 833 m². Large benthic holothuroids can move but the distances required to find each other and aggregate from a population of 0.0012 individuals per m² are too great and holothuroids do not move fast enough to produce an aggregation to spawn effectively, i.e., "...due to reduction in population density caused by fishing, individuals may be unable to reproduce, the distance between males and females being too large" [16].

Growth rates of sea cucumbers are not well known, but a study of *H. whitmaei* shows slow growth and low overall productivity [7]. Aging of holothurians in the wild has not been possible, but modeling by Uthicke et al. [7] indicated that *H. whitmaei* are long-lived (potentially several decades), with low and sporadic recruitment. This is consistent with the slow rate of population recovery after overfishing.

The *H. whitmaei* species is an especially high-priced tropical benthic resource with slow recovery after having been overfished which thins the populations to densities that are insufficient for successful fertilization. *H. whitmaei* have been overharvested throughout most of their range [5]. As discussed for *H. fuscogilva*, the biology of holothuroids makes the economics of extractive harvest favor overharvesting or even liquidation. Large-scale harvesting results in populations requiring decades to recover. Since recruitment is variable and holothuroids have slow growth, overhead of harvesting, transporting, and marketing cannot be met; consequently, overexploitation of the resource is likely (Anonymous 2000). Confining the harvest of holothuroids to subsistence may lead to sustainable use of holothuroid resources as it does not involve the major expenses of travel, transporting, or marketing.

References

1. Uthicke S, Benzie JAH. 2000. Allozyme electrophoresis indicates high gene flow between populations of *Holothuria (Microthele) nobilis* (Holothuroidea: Aspidochirotida) on the Great Barrier Reef. *Mar Biol.* 137(5):819–25.
2. Uthicke S, Benzie JAH. 2003. Gene flow and population history in high dispersal marine invertebrates: mitochondrial DNA analysis of *Holothuria nobilis* (Echinodermata: Holothuroidea) populations from the Indo-Pacific. *Mol Ecol.* 12(10):2635–48.
3. Shiell G, Uthicke S. 2006. Reproduction of the commercial sea cucumber *Holothuria whitmaei* [Holothuroidea: Aspidochirotida] in the Indian and Pacific Ocean regions of Australia. *Mar Biol.* 148:973–86.
4. Welch D., Johnson JE. 2013. Assessing the vulnerability of Torres Strait fisheries and supporting habitats to climate change. Report to the Australian Fisheries Management Authority. C20 Fisheries. Available from: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/309043114>
5. Conand C, Polidoro B, Mercier A, Gamboa R, Hamel J, Purcell S. 2014. L'évaluation des holothuries aspidochirotes pour la Liste rouge de l'UICN et ses implications. *Le Bêche-de-mer, Bull la CPS.* 34:3–7.
6. Purcell SW. 2014. Value, market preferences and trade of beche-de-mer from Pacific Island sea cucumbers. *PLoS One.* 9(4):e95075-.

7. Uthicke S, Welch D, Benzie JAH. 2004. Slow growth and lack of recovery in overfished Holothurians on the Great Barrier Reef: Evidence from DNA fingerprints and repeated large-scale surveys. *Conserv Biol.* 18(5):1395–404.
8. Richmond RH. 1999. Sea cucumbers. In Eldredge LG, Maragos JE, Holthus PF, Takeuchi HF, editors. *Marine and coastal biodiversity in the tropical island Pacific region 2: population, development, and conservation priorities*. Pacific Science Association: Honolulu. pp. 145-155.
9. Kerr AM, Kim SW, Miller AK. 2014. Survey of the shallow-water sea cucumbers of Chuuk, Federated States of Micronesia. University of Guam Marine Laboratory Technical Report 155.
10. Conand, C. 1998. Overexploitation in the present world sea cucumber fisheries and perspectives in mariculture. In Mooi R, Telford M, editors. *Echinoderms: San Francisco: Proceedings of the Ninth International Echinoderm Conference, San Francisco*. Balkema:Rotterdam. pp. 449–454.
11. Coma R, Lasker HR. 1997. Small-scale heterogeneity of fertilization success in a broadcast spawning octocoral. *J Exp Mar Biol Ecol.* 214(1):107–20.
12. Lacks AL. 2000. Reproductive ecology and distribution of the scleractinian coral *fungia scutaria* in Kane’ohe Bay, O’ahu, Hawai’i. M.Sc. Thesis, The University of Hawaii. Available from: https://scholarspace.manoa.hawaii.edu/bitstream/10125/16333/uhm_ma_3555_r.pdf
13. Levitan DR, Fukami H, Jara J, Kline D, McGovern TM, McGhee KE, Swanson CA, Knowlton N. 2004. Mechanisms of reproductive isolation among sympatric broadcast-spawning corals of the *Montastraea annularis* species complex. *Evolution.* 58(2):308–23.
14. Oliver J, Babcock R. 1992. Aspects of the fertilization ecology of broadcast spawning corals: Sperm dilution effects and in situ measurements of fertilization. *Biol Bull.* 183(3):409-417.
15. Mercier A, Battaglene SC, Hamel JF. 2000. Periodic movement, recruitment and size-related distribution of the sea cucumber *Holothuria scabra* in Solomon Islands. *Hydrobiologia.* 440(1):81–100.
16. CITES. 2018. Species specific matters Maintenance of the Appendices Proposals for possible consideration at CoP18 (AC30 Doc. 30.1); 2018 July 16-21; Geneva, Switzerland. Available from: <https://cites.org/sites/default/files/eng/com/ac/30/E-AC30-30-01.pdf>
17. Kinch J, Purcell S, Uthicke S, Friedman K. 2008. Population status, fisheries and trade of sea cucumbers in the Western Central Pacific. In V. Toral-Granda, A. Lovatelli and M. Vasconcellos. *Sea cucumbers. A global review of fisheries and trade*. FAO Fisheries and Aquaculture Technical Paper. No. 516. Rome, FAO. pp. 7–55.

Blue octopus - *Octopus cyanea*

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate ■

Biological Sensitivity = Low ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 21% of scores ≥ 2

Octopus cyanea		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	
Sensitivity attributes	Habitat Specificity	1.6	2.8	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	<div><div>Low</div><div>Moderate</div><div>High</div><div>Very High</div></div>
	Prey Specificity	1.4	2.8	<div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Adult Mobility	2.6	2.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.6	1.6	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	1.8	0.8	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	1.5	1.8	<div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Spawning Cycle	2.3	2.6	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity to Temperature	1.2	3	<div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	1.6	2.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Population Growth Rate	1.4	1.2	<div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Stock Size/Status	2	1.2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Other Stressors	1.8	1.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity Score		Low		
Exposure variables	Bottom Salinity	1	3	<div><div></div></div>	
	Bottom Temperature	1	3	<div><div></div></div>	
	Current EW	1.3	3	<div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current NS	1.3	3	<div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current Speed	1.2	3	<div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Mixed Layer Depth	1	3	<div><div></div></div>	
	Ocean Acidification	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Precipitation	1	3	<div><div></div></div>	
	Productivity	1.4	3	<div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Chlorophyll	1.4	3	<div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Oxygen	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Salinity	1.3	3	<div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind EW	1.1	3	<div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind NS	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind Speed	1.1	3	<div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Moderate			

Blue Octopus (*Octopus cyanea*)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: **[Moderate]**. (95% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: **[Very High]**. Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), and Ocean Oxygen (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

Biological Sensitivity: **[Low]**. No sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0. The highest scores were for Adult Mobility (2.6) and Spawning Cycle (2.3).

Distributional Vulnerability Rank: **[High]**. Three attributes indicated high vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, and relatively high habitat specialization.

Data Quality: 21% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater. Early Life History and Settlement Requirements was particularly data deficient (0.8)

Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

The shallow-water benthic blue octopus (*Octopus cyanea*) are found in coral bedrock, live and dead coral heads, excavations in sand or rubble as well as in naturally occurring holes in rocks or dens [1,2]. They occur from eastern Africa to the Hawaiian Islands and can be found in a depth range of 0 to 150 m. *O. cyanea* are not migratory, typically stay near their shelter [1], and prefer temperatures ranging from 24.7 °C to 29.1 °C. Climate effects, specifically temperature, are expected to increase the rates of food intake, growth, and metabolism [3]. Additionally, low light intensity and elevated temperatures are thought to induce early spawning and thus short life-spans [3]. The blue octopus are not directly affected by ocean acidification and are not dependent on other species affected by ocean acidification since it consumes a variety of prey; although they inhabit live and dead coral heads [1,3].

Life History Synopsis:

In captivity, *Octopus cyanea* can spawn year round. Males may mate with several females, after which the suckers on the edge of his webbing expand in size over two or three months until he dies. Females deposit their eggs in a den and remain near them until they hatch, dying soon after [4]. After hatching, embryos enter the planktonic stage, however, the duration is not reported [5]. After developing into juveniles, *O. cyanea* rapidly form homes and defend against conspecifics [6]. Lifespan is reported to be around 12 to 15 months after settling from the planktonic larval state [4].

Adults primarily eat bivalves, gastropods, and xanthid crabs. They are considered to be an opportunistic predator and use tactile foraging methods. Blue octopus pounce to capture crabs and other prey items or hunt by using an interbranchial web to cover coral heads, rocks, or algae clumps. Then they explore the object with the tips of their arms [1,3]. *O. cyanea*'s growth curve is nearly exponential and they can convert prey into new growth with an efficiency greater than 50% [3].

References

1. Forsythe JW, Hanlon RT. 1997. Foraging and associated behavior by *Octopus cyanea* Gray, 1849 on a coral atoll, French Polynesia. J Exp Mar Bio Ecol. 209(1):15–31.

2. Jereb P, Roper CFE, Norman MD, Finn JK. 2014. Cephalopods of the world. An annotated and illustrated catalogue of cephalopod species known to date. Species Catalogue for Fishery Purposes. No.4, Vol. 3. Octopods and vampire squids. Rome:FAO. pp. 370.
3. Van Heukelem WF. 1976. Growth, bioenergetics and life-span of *Octopus cyanea* and *Octopus maya*. Ph.D. Dissertation, The University of Hawaii at Manoa. Available from: https://scholarspace.manoa.hawaii.edu/bitstream/10125/18157/uhm_phd_0909_r.pdf
4. Heukelem W Van. 1973. Growth and life-span of *Octopus cyanea* (Mollusca: Cephalopoda). J Zool. 169(3):299–315.
5. Ruppert EE, Fox RS, Barnes RD. 2004. Invertebrate zoology. A functional evolutionary approach. 7th ed. Belmont, California: Thomson Brooks/Cole. pp 990.
6. Wells MJ, Wells J. 1970. Observations on the feeding, growth rate and habits of newly settled *Octopus cyanea*. J Zool. 161(1):65–74.

Spiny lobster - *Panulirus penicillatus*

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate

Climate Exposure = Very High

Data Quality = 93% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Panulirus penicillatus</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	<div><div>Low</div><div>Moderate</div><div>High</div><div>Very High</div></div>
Sensitivity attributes	Habitat Specificity	2.7	2.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Prey Specificity	1	2.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Adult Mobility	2.7	2.6	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	2	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.7	2.6	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	1.8	2.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Spawning Cycle	1.8	2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity to Temperature	2	2.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	2.3	2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Population Growth Rate	2	1.6	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Stock Size/Status	2	2.2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Other Stressors	1.8	1	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity Score		Moderate		
Exposure variables	Bottom Salinity	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Bottom Temperature	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current EW	1.3	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current NS	1.2	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current Speed	1.2	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Mixed Layer Depth	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Ocean Acidification	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Precipitation	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Productivity	1.4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Chlorophyll	1.5	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Oxygen	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Salinity	1.4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind EW	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind NS	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind Speed	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High			

Spiny Lobster (*Panulirus penicillatus*)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: **[High]**. (98% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: **[Very High]**. Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), and Ocean Oxygen (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

Biological Sensitivity: **[Moderate]**. No sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0. The highest scores were for Habitat Specificity (2.7), Adult Mobility (2.7) and Early Life History and Settlement Requirements (2.7).

Distributional Vulnerability Rank: **[Low]**. All four attributes indicated low vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, relatively high habitat specialization, and sensitivity to temperature.

Data Quality: 93% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Panulirus penicillatus have a wide distribution that includes regions in the Indo-West Pacific and east Pacific, south of the Red Sea, South and East Africa, Madagascar, Indian Ocean, South China Sea, Japan, the Philippines, Indonesia Hawai'i, Samoa, Tuamotu Archipelago, northern and eastern Australia, the Galapagos, Revillagigedo Archipelagos, Cocos and Clipperton Islands, Sinaloa, Nayarit, Guerrero. Spiny lobster's preferred temperature ranges from 20.1 °C to 28.3 °C [1,2]. Spiny lobsters typically inhabit outer reef slopes, subtidal zones, or surge channels and can occur on small islands or near arid coasts. They are nocturnal and are found in depths of 1 to 4 m (maximum 16 m). *P. penicillatus* flourish in rough water habitats and those in the coral reef are usually found on the forereef or scoured shorelines in windward surf zones since they require clear, clean, and highly oxygenated water [1,3,4]. Adult range on average is less than 2 km [5].

P. penicillatus are common off the coasts of the U.S., Mexico, and Mozambique, while scarce in South Africa [4]. The population density is approximately 95 individuals per km in the tropical west Pacific [6]. Intense fishing pressure from commercial and subsistence fisheries appear to have reduced the lobster's abundance. Declines are localized and have not been studied across its entire range. The species is likely ecologically extinct on O'ahu, and stocks are depleted on the outer islands in Hawai'i (M. Iacchei, personal communication) [4,6-8].

Spiny lobsters have exoskeletons composed of carbohydrate chitin and consume crustose coralline algae to increase calcium which hardens into new shell after molting (M. Iacchei, personal communication). The role of calcium and dependence on crustose coralline algae as a food and calcium source is anticipated to make spiny lobster more sensitive to ocean acidification. Other potential stressors to *P. penicillatus* are not reported.

Life History Synopsis:

Spiny lobster females are reproductive year round, with peaks occurring in the summer months when temperatures increase [3,9,10]. Brood and pelagic duration last from 1 month to 7.5 months [11,12]. Larvae are relatively large and capable of dynamic movement. The phyllosoma and puerulus stages are active within the pelagic, with phyllosoma demonstrating diel vertical migration and horizontal

movement. Additionally, pueruli exhibit rapid swimming, navigation to the coast, and habitat preferences. When larvae metamorphose into pueruli, they resemble a clear-colored baby lobster and are non-feeding. Their fast swimming ability allows them to cross the shelf, settle into adult habitat, and molt into the juvenile stage and begin feeding (*M. lacchei*, personal communication).

Larvae can be found in the ocean, 4,000 km from the nearest adult habitat. The dynamic larval behavior indicates that the long planktonic larval duration may only rarely disperse larvae across the full species range. The “Johnson’s model” of lobster larval dispersal suggests that the majority of phyllosoma and pueruli are retained locally in gyres or eddies near the coastline and recruitment is dependent on local production [13].

Larvae and adult spiny lobsters grow by molting. When they outgrow their current body and shed their current exoskeleton, they are soft tissue and, consequently, vulnerable for up to a week. During this period of vulnerability, they hide in shelters, eat crustose coralline algae to increase calcium to harden a new shell. Adults molt approximately once per year; the frequency decreases as the lobster gets older (*M. lacchei* personal communication). Spiny Lobsters in the Galapagos have a von Bertalanffy growth coefficient (*K*), which indicates how fast maximum length is reached, of 0.264 and 0.201 yr⁻¹ for females and males, respectively [14]. While the age of maturity for *P. penicillatus* is not known, other Palinurid lobsters reach sexual maturity by 3 to 4 years. Their maximum age ranges from 10 to 14 years [15]. Natural mortality (*M*) in the Marshall Islands was calculated as approximately 0.24 yr⁻¹ [6].

Larvae likely feed on soft-bodied organisms such as appendicularians, salps, and cnidarians while in the open ocean for 9 months. Spiny lobster adults are omnivores, preferentially eating gastropods, bivalves, chitons, crustaceans, crustose coralline, and fleshy algae. It is thought that they will also move into the intertidal zone and consume echinometra urchins (*M. lacchei* personal communication)[16,17]. Their predators consist of octopuses and jacks. At smaller sizes, their predators include other invertivores (*M. lacchei*, personal communication).

A significant genetic structure was observed at multiple spatial scales throughout its range, from the Red Sea to the east Pacific Ocean. Population subdivisions frequently corresponded with provincial biogeographic boundaries, and a potential species-level disjunction occurred across the east Pacific Barrier. Some sites were highly isolated within broader regions of minimal genetic discontinuity [13].

References

1. Holthuis LB. 1991. Marine lobsters of the world. An annotated and illustrated catalogue of species of interest to fisheries known to date. FAO species catalogue. No. 125, Vol. 13. Rome:FAO.
2. Kaschner K, Kesner-Reyes K, Garilao C, Rius-Barile J, Rees T, Froese R. 2016. AquaMaps: predicted range maps for aquatic species. Available from: www.aquamaps.org.
3. Chan TY. 1998. Lobsters. In: Carpenter KE, Niem VH, editors. FAO species identification guide for fishery purposes. The living marine resources of the Western Central Pacific. Vol. 2. Cephalopods, crustaceans, holothurians and sharks. Rome:FAO. pp. 973–1044.
4. Cockcroft A, MacDiarmid A, Butler M. *Panulirus penicillatus*; 2011 [cited 2017 Sept 29]. Database: The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species [Internet]. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2305/IUCN.UK.2011-1.RLTS.T169951A6691002.en>.

5. Prescott J. 1998. Tropical spiny lobster: An overview of their biology, the fisheries and the economics with particular reference to the double spined rock lobster *P. penicillatus*. South Pacific Commission Workshop. New Caledonia:Pacific Inshore Fishery Resources. Working Paper. 18:1–36.
6. Ebert TA, Ford RF. 1986. Population ecology and fishery potential of the spiny lobster *Panulirus penicillatus* at Enewetak Atoll, Marshall Islands. Bull Mar Sci. 38(1):56–67.
7. Fischer W, Bianchi G. 1984. Palinuridae. FAO species identification sheets for fishery purposes. Western Indian Ocean (Fishing Area 51). Rome:FAO.
8. Steyn E, Fielding PJ, Schleyer MH. 2008. The artisanal fishery for East Coast rock lobsters *Panulirus homarus* along the Wild Coast, South Africa. Afr J Mar Sci. 30(3):497–506.
9. Freitas R, Medina A, Correia S, Castro M. 2007. Reproductive biology of spiny lobster *Panulirus regius* from the north-western Cape Verde Islands. Afr J Mar Sci. 29(2):201–208.
10. Juinio MAR. 1987. Some aspects of the reproduction of *Panulirus penicillatus* (Decapoda: Palinuridae). Bull Mar Sci. 41(2): 242–252.
11. Booth JD, Phillips BF. 1994. Early life history of Spiny Lobster. Crustaceana. 66(3):271–294.
12. Chubb CF. 1994. Reproductive biology: issues for management. In: Phillips BF, Cobb JS, Kittaka, J. Spiny Lobster Management. Oxford:Blackwell Scientificpp. 181–212.
13. Iacchei M. 2013. Population genetic and phylogeographic insights into the phyllosomal odyssey. Ph.D. Dissertation, The University of Hawaii. Available from: <https://scholarspace.manoa.hawaii.edu/handle/10125/100601>
14. Hear A, Murillo JC. 2008. Life history of the red spiny lobster, *Panulirus penicillatus* (Decapoda: Palinuridae), in the Galapagos Marine Reserve, Ecuador. Pac Sci.62(2): 191–204.
15. Frisch AJ. 2007. Growth and reproduction of the painted spiny lobster (*Panulirus versicolor*) on the Great Barrier Reef (Australia). Fish Res. 85(1):61–67.
16. Bowers RL. 1968. Observations on the orientation and feeding behavior of barnacles associated with lobsters. J Exp Mar Biol Ecol. 2(2):105–112.
17. Kanciruk P. 2012. Ecology of juvenile and adult Palinuridae (spiny lobsters). Cobb JS, Philips BF, editors. In: The biology and management of lobsters: ecology and management, volume 2. New York:Academic. pp. 59–92.





























Kona crab - *Ranina ranina*

Overall Vulnerability Rank = High

Biological Sensitivity = Moderate

Climate Exposure = Very High

Data Quality = 25% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Ranina ranina</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	
Sensitivity attributes	Habitat Specificity	1.3	2.6		<div>Low</div> <div>Moderate</div> <div>High</div> <div>Very High</div>
	Prey Specificity	1.5	2.6		
	Adult Mobility	2.8	2.2		
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	2	1.4		
	Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.3	1.2		
	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	1.9	2.2		
	Spawning Cycle	2	2.6		
	Sensitivity to Temperature	1.2	2.6		
	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	2.8	2.4		
	Population Growth Rate	2.2	1.6		
	Stock Size/Status	1.4	1.8		
	Other Stressors	2	1.4		
	Sensitivity Score		Moderate		
Exposure variables	Bottom Salinity	1			
	Bottom Temperature	1			
	Current EW	1.3			
	Current NS	1.3			
	Current Speed	1.3			
	Mixed Layer Depth	1			
	Ocean Acidification	4			
	Precipitation	1			
	Productivity	1.4			
	Sea Surface Temperature	4			
	Surface Chlorophyll	1.5			
	Surface Oxygen	4			
	Surface Salinity	1.3			
	Wind EW	1			
	Wind NS	1			
	Wind Speed	1.1			
	Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		High			

Kona Crab (*Ranina ranina*)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: **[High]**. (94% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: **[Very High]**. Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), and Ocean Oxygen (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

Biological Sensitivity: **[Moderate]**. No sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0. The highest scores were for Adult Mobility (2.8) and Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification (2.8).

Distributional Vulnerability Rank: **[Moderate]**. Three attributes indicated moderate vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, and relatively high habitat specialization. However, sensitivity to temperature was scored as low which may mitigate the propensity of the species to shift distribution.

Data Quality: 25% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Unusually high temperatures might affect the physiological condition of Kona crab (*Ranina ranina*) larvae. A study examined the temperature effects on larval development of *R. ranina* where zoeas were exposed to temperature treatments encompassing 17 to 33 °C. Survival decreased with decreasing temperature and the ideal temperature range for survival constricted at later developmental stages [1]. Time between molting events increased as temperature declined. Food consumption increased as development progressed; additionally, consumption increased at higher temperatures for instars I-V but reached its maximum at 25 °C during instar VII [1]. Kona crabs and a variety of soft shelled mollusks they feed on have an exoskeleton made of protein, chitin, and calcium which makes them sensitive to ocean acidification [2,3]. It was observed that when Kona crabs were exposed to elevated temperatures during early development, they had reduced growth and delay of morphogenesis, despite consuming a large amount of food [1].

Life History Synopsis:

Kona crabs are found in the Indo-Pacific ranging from East Africa, Japan, Australia, and Hawai'i. It is a reef-associated and tropical species [2]. Their preferred habitat is sand although they are also associated with coral reefs [2,4-6].

There are no reported habitat requirements reported for juvenile Kona Crab. Adult crabs tend to occupy the sublittoral zone at depths up to 200 m in open sand areas that are subject to strong currents, and adjacent to coral reefs [2,4-6]. Kona crabs are opportunistic scavengers that feed on a variety of worms and soft shelled mollusks. Kona crabs are moderately limited in mobility and spend the majority of time buried in the sand to avoid predators and emerge only to feed and mate [2,7,8].

In Hawai'i, females are ovigerous from May to September. Larger females to ovulate at least twice each season, with the primary effort going into the first ovulation [5,9]. Pelagic larval duration is not reported for this species in particular, but for the Samoan crab (*Scylla serrata*), experimental work by Nurdaini and Zeng [10] estimated a mean larval development time to the megalopa stage ranging from 20.6 to 22.6 days at 25 °C, shortened by several days at higher temperatures.

Kona crab has been commercially fished in Hawai'i, Japan, the Philippines, the Seychelles, and more recently along the east coast of Australia. A study in Australia displayed a reduction in the amount of targeted large male crabs (110 to 119 mm carapace length) over a 2-year period at two sites [11]. Fishery-independent surveys in Australia displayed a Kona crab abundance that varied significantly by time period, location, and depth. Catches, in particular females, were reduced from October to December each year which aligned with spawning periods [11]. In Hawai'i, an interdecadal decline in crab catch rate was observed for O'ahu but not for other islands [8].

Kona crabs are slow growers [12,13]. Males appeared to reach their maximum asymptotic size (L_{\max}) at about 140 mm, whereas in females L_{\max} may be greater than 110 mm [4]. Age at maturity is not reported for this species, but the Samoan crab becomes sexually mature within the first two years of life [14,15]. The carapace length where 50% of female Kona crabs were ovigerous during spawning season was 70–75 mm, and the mean length of ovigerous females was 86 ± 8 mm [5]. The von Bertalanffy growth coefficient (K), which indicates how fast maximum length is reached, was estimated to be 0.29 yr^{-1} for females and 0.23 yr^{-1} for males [13].

References

1. Minagawa M. 1990. Influence of temperature on survival, feeding and development of larvae of the red frog crab, *Ranina ranina* (Crustacea, Decapoda, Raninidae). *Nippon Suisan Gakkaishi*. 56(5):755–760.
2. Ng PKL. 1998. Crabs. In: Carpenter KE, Niem VH, editors. *FAO species identification guide for fishery purposes. The living marine resources of the Western Central Pacific. Vol. 2. Cephalopods, crustaceans, holothurians and sharks*. Rome:FAO. pp. 1045-1155.
3. Baylon JC, Tito OD. 2012. Natural diet and feeding habits of the red frog crab (*Ranina ranina*) from Southwestern Mindanao, Philippines. *Philipp Agric Scientist*. 95(4): 370-377.
4. Chen Y, Kennelly SJ. 1999. Growth of spanner crabs, *Ranina ranina*, off the east coast of Australia. *Mar Freshw Res*. 50(4):319–325.
5. Fielding A, Haley S. 1976. Sex ratio, size at reproductive maturity, and reproduction of the Hawaiian Kona crab, *Ranina ranina* (Linnaeus) (Brachyura, Gymnopleura, Raninidae). *Pac Sci*. 30(2):131–145.
6. Poupin J. 1996. Crustacea decapoda of French Polynesia (Astacidea, Palinuridea, Anomura, Brachyura). *Atoll Res Bull*. 442:1–114.
7. Skinner DG, Hill BJ. 1987. Feeding and reproductive behavior and their effect on catchability of the spanner crab *Ranina ranina*. *Mar Biol*. 94: 211-218.
8. Thomas LR, DiNardo GT, Lee H-H, Piner KR, Kahng SE. 2013. Factors Influencing the distribution of kona crabs *Ranina Ranina* (Brachyura: Raninidae) catch rates in the main Hawaiian Islands. *J Crustac Biol*. 33(5):633–640.
9. Minagawa M, Chiu J, Kudo F, Ito F, Takashima F. 1993. Female reproductive biology and oocyte development of the red frog, *Ranina ranina*, off Hachijojima, Izu Islands, Japan. *Mar Biol*. 115:613-623.

10. Nurdiani R, Zeng C. 2007. Effects of temperature and salinity on the survival and development of mud crab, *Scylla serrata* (Forsskål), larvae. *Aquac Res.* 38(14):1529–38.
11. Kennelly SJ. 1992. Distributions, abundances and current status of exploited populations of spanner crabs *Ranina ranina* off the east coast of Australia. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser.* 85(3):227–35.
12. Brown I, Kirkwood J, Gaddes S, Dichmont C, Ovenden J. 1999. Population dynamics and management of spanner crabs (*Ranina ranina*) in southern Queensland. Department of Primary Industries, Queensland. QO99010, FRDC project 95/022. pp. 145.
13. Kirkwood JM, Brown IW, Gaddes SW, Hoyle S. 2005. Juvenile length-at-age data reveal that spanner crabs (*Ranina ranina*) grow slowly. *Mar Biol.* 147(2):331–339.
14. Tookwinas S, Srichantulk N, Kanchanavasit C. 1991. Mud crab production in Thailand. In: CA Angell, editor. Seminar on the mud crab culture and trade. Madras, India Bay of Bengal Program. pp. 65-70.
15. Heasman MP. 1980. Aspects of the general biology and fishery of the mud crab *Scylla serrata* (Forsk.) in Moreton Bay, Queensland. Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Queensland. Available from: <https://espace.library.uq.edu.au/view/UQ:381994/THE2210.pdf>

Samoan crab - *Scylla serrata*Overall Vulnerability Rank = Moderate Biological Sensitivity = Low Climate Exposure = Very High Data Quality = 89% of scores ≥ 2

Scylla serrata		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	<div><div>Low</div><div>Moderate</div><div>High</div><div>Very High</div></div>
Sensitivity attributes	Habitat Specificity	2.2	2.8	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Prey Specificity	1.6	2.6	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Adult Mobility	3	2.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.6	2.8	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2	2.2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	1.9	2.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Spawning Cycle	2.4	2.6	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity to Temperature	2	2.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	2.4	2.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Population Growth Rate	1.8	1.6	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Stock Size/Status	1.8	1.4	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Other Stressors	2	1.6	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sensitivity Score		Low		
Exposure variables	Bottom Salinity	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Bottom Temperature	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current EW	1.3	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current NS	1.3	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Current Speed	1.2	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Mixed Layer Depth	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Ocean Acidification	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Precipitation	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Productivity	1.4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Chlorophyll	1.4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Oxygen	4	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Surface Salinity	1.3	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind EW	1.1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind NS	1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Wind Speed	1.1	3	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>	
	Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Moderate			

Samoan Crab (*Scylla serrata*)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: **[Moderate]**. (74% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: **[Very High]**. Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), and Ocean Oxygen (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

Biological Sensitivity: **[Low]**. No sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0. The highest scores were for Spawning Cycle (2.4) and Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification (2.4).

Distributional Vulnerability Rank: **[Moderate]**. All four attributes indicated moderate vulnerability to distribution shift: adult mobility, limited early life stage dispersal, relatively high habitat specialization, and sensitivity to temperature.

Data Quality: 89% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Scylla serrata, also known as Samoan crab, is native to the Indo-Pacific but was introduced to areas such as Florida and Hawai'i (34°N to 37°S, 22°E to 134°W). It occurs in temperatures ranging from 20 °C to 30 °C and in depths ranging from 0 to 70 m [1-3]. *S. serrata* digs burrows in mangroves or in soft substrate in the shallow and intertidal waters [2]. They are expected to be affected by ocean acidification since their exoskeleton is composed of calcium and their diet consists of molluscs and crustaceans, which rely on calcium as well [4]. Other environmental stressors are not reported for this species.

Life History Synopsis:

S. serrata males initiate copulation when the female is about to molt [1]. The male delivers non-motile spermatozoa into the female, which she retains for several weeks to months before they fertilize her eggs [5]. Females bear egg masses on their pleopods and migrate offshore where millions of eggs will hatch. *S. serrata* have an extended larval duration, with the megalopa stage lasting approximately 21 days at 25 °C [5-8]. It is thought that the elongated larval period allows for greater dispersal to populations throughout the Indo-Pacific, including Japan, Indonesia, the Red Sea, the Philippines, and East and South Africa [6,9]. Juvenile crabs are usually found in the upper intertidal area and adults occur in the subtidal [1]. Differences in habitat use based on life stage may be a mechanism for smaller individuals to avoid cannibalism from larger conspecifics [1]. Samoan crabs become sexually mature in the first two years of life [10,11]. Samoan crabs can grow up to 3.5 kg and have a shell width of 24 cm. Berried females are typically found from November to April with more found in December and February [12].

Larvae survive at salinities higher than 20‰ which corresponds with the migration of egg-bearing females to offshore waters. At 15‰, larval mortality was 100% [8]. Adults are euryhaline and are able to persist in high and low salinities [13]. Adults are also eurythermal, with larvae having a slightly narrower thermal tolerance. Adults were successfully raised at 25 °C to 36 °C while larvae experienced mortality at temperatures above 25 °C [14,15] Samoan crabs forage during the night and feed on small invertebrates as well as shrimps, crabs, fishes, and bivalves [4].

References

1. Alberts-Hubatsch H, Lee SY, Meynecke J-O, Diele K, Nordhaus I, Wolff M. 2016. Life-history, movement, and habitat use of *Scylla serrata* (Decapoda, Portunidae): current knowledge and future challenges. *Hydrobiologia*. 763:5–21.
2. Ng PKL. 1998. Crabs. In: Carpenter KE, Niem VH, editors. *FAO species identification guide for fishery purposes. The living marine resources of the Western Central Pacific*. Vol. 2. Cephalopods, crustaceans, holothurians and sharks. Rome:FAO. pp. 1045-1155.
3. Hill BJ. 1994. Offshore spawning by the portunid crab *Scylla serrata* (Crustacea: Decapoda). *Mar Bio*. 120: 379-384.
4. Cannicci S, Dahdouh-Guebas F, Dyane A, Vannini M. 1996. Natural diet and feeding habits of *Thalamita Crenata* (Decapoda: Portunidae). *J Crustac Biol*. 16(4):678–683.
5. Chen TP. 1976. *Aquaculture practices in Taiwan*. Farnham, England:Fishing News Books Limited. pp. 162.
6. Fratini S, Vannini M. 2002. Genetic differentiation in the mud crab *Scylla serrata* (Decapoda: Portunidae) within the Indian Ocean. *J Exp Mar Biol Ecol*. 272(1):103–116.
7. Davis JA, Churchill GJ, Hecht T, Sorgeloos P. 2004. Spawning characteristics of the South African mudcrab *Scylla serrata* (Forsk.) in captivity. *J World Aquac Soc*. 35(2): 121- 133.
8. Nurdiani R, Zeng C. 2007. Effects of temperature and salinity on the survival and development of mud crab, *Scylla serrata* (Forsskal), larvae. *Aquac Res*. 38(14):1529–1538.
9. Eldredge LG, Smith C. 2001. *Guidebook to the introduced marine species in Hawaiian waters*. Bishop Museum Technical Report 21. Honolulu:Bishop Museum.
10. Tookwinas S, Srichantulk N, Kanchanavasit C. 1991. Mud crab production in Thailand. In: CA Angell, editor. *Seminar on the mud crab culture and trade*. Madras, India Bay of Bengal Program. pp. 65–70.
11. Heasman MP. 1980. Aspects of the general biology and fishery of the mud crab *Scylla serrata* (Forsk.) in Moreton Bay, Queensland. Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Queensland. Available from: <https://espace.library.uq.edu.au/view/UQ:381994/THE2210.pdf>
12. Lalitha Devi S. 1985. The fishery and biology of crabs of Kakinada region. *Indian J Fish*. 32(1):18–32.
13. Chen J-C, Chia PG. 1996. Hemolymph ammonia and urea and nitrogenous excretions of *Scylla serrata* at different temperature and salinity levels . *Mar Ecol Prog Ser*. 139:119–125.
14. Mwaluma J. 2002. Pen culture of the mud crab *Scylla serrata* in Mtwapa Mangrove System, Kenya. *West Indian Ocean J Mar Sci*. 1(2):127–133.
15. Hill BJ. 1974. Salinity and temperature tolerance of zoeae of the portunid crab *Scylla serrata*. *Mar Biol*. 25: 21-24.

Maxima clam - *Tridacna maxima*

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High

Biological Sensitivity = High

Climate Exposure = Very High

Data Quality = 32% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tridacna maxima</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	<div><div>Low</div><div>Moderate</div><div>High</div><div>Very High</div></div>
Sensitivity attributes	Habitat Specificity	2.5	2.6		
	Prey Specificity	1.2	2.6		
	Adult Mobility	3.8	3		
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	2.4	3		
	Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.2	1.8		
	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	2.2	2		
	Spawning Cycle	2.2	2		
	Sensitivity to Temperature	3	2.6		
	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	3.6	2.4		
	Population Growth Rate	2.4	2		
	Stock Size/Status	3	1.4		
	Other Stressors	2.3	1.6		
	Sensitivity Score		High		
Exposure variables	Bottom Salinity	1	3		
	Bottom Temperature	1	3		
	Current EW	1.3	3		
	Current NS	1.3	3		
	Current Speed	1.2	3		
	Mixed Layer Depth	1	3		
	Ocean Acidification	4	3		
	Precipitation	1	3		
	Productivity	1.4	3		
	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3		
	Surface Chlorophyll	1.4	3		
	Surface Oxygen	4	3		
	Surface Salinity	1.4	3		
	Wind EW	1.1	3		
	Wind NS	1	3		
	Wind Speed	1.1	3		
	Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High			

Maxima Clam (*Tridacna maxima*)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: **[Very High]**. (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: **[Very High]**. Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), and Ocean Oxygen (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

Biological Sensitivity: **[High]**. Two sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0: Adult Mobility (3.8) and Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification (3.6).

Distributional Vulnerability Rank: **[Moderate]**. Three attributes indicated moderate vulnerability to distribution shift: limited early life stage dispersal, high habitat specialization, and sensitivity to temperature. However, adult mobility was scored as low which may mitigate the propensity of the species to shift distribution.

Data Quality: 32% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Maxima clams (*Tridacna maxima*) are found in the tropics (28°N to 37°S, 31°E to 128°W) in temperatures ranging from 23 °C to 30 °C [1]. *T. maxima* is found in the coral reef flats of shallow areas, reef areas of lagoons, and in the intertidal region. They are sometimes found on the surface of the reef or sand, sometimes embedded in the coral. They typically occur in well-lit areas since they have a symbiotic relationship with photosynthetic organisms [2,3]. Depth ranges from 0 to 20 m [4]. Wild stocks are depleted and certain populations in Southeast Asia and South Pacific are locally extirpated [5]. *T. maxima* has a calcium carbonate shell which makes them sensitive to ocean acidification.

Life History Synopsis:

Maxima Clams in Anae Island, Guam, are most likely spawn in November to March and peak in February. Spawning also occurs in August and September. Reproduction is stimulated by the lunar cycle, time of day, and presence of other gametes in the water. Additionally, elevated temperature may be a factor which induces spawning [6,7]. Larval dispersal along present-day ocean surface currents cannot be assumed since other mechanisms may be the cause of the dispersal [8]. Within 12 hours of fertilization, embryos develop into trochophore larvae and are able to filter feed [6]. The trochophore larvae then develop into bivalve veligers [7,9]. At the final larval stage, a foot develops and allows the larva to swim and rest on substrate [6]. Veligers metamorphose to juveniles, which in one study occurred 11 days post fertilization [7,9]. After metamorphosis, juveniles become more sedentary and acquire zooxanthellae (*Symbiodinium microadriaticum*), from which they receive nutrition. Nutrient uptake of dissolved matter also occurs through their epidermis [6,10]. Sessile adults can be found attached to rocks or dead coral [6,7,9]. *T. maxima* siphons water through its body to filter for phytoplankton and extract oxygen with its gills [6].

Veliger shell growth rate and shell growth rate after settlement until day 40 are low, after which growth rate increases to 6.8 µm/day. The sharp increase in growth rate corresponds to when juveniles acquire their zooxanthellae [7]. Juveniles mature into males after 2 or 3 years and become hermaphroditic at around 15 cm in length [1,7]. The von Bertalanffy growth coefficient, which indicates how fast maximum length is reached, is approximately 0.1 yr⁻¹ and asymptotic mean size is estimated at 27–30 cm [11,12].

References

1. Isamu T. 2008. Palau case study – Tridacnidae. NDF workshop case studies, WG 9 – Aquatic invertebrates case study 2. Mexico. pp. 1–14.
2. Abbott RT. 1991. Seashells of Southeast Asia. Singapore:Graham Bash. pp. 145.
3. Pante E, Adjeroud M, Dustan P, Penin L, Schrimm M. 2006. Spatial patterns of benthic invertebrate assemblages within atoll lagoons: importance of habitat heterogeneity and considerations for marine protected area design in French Polynesia. *Aquat Living Resour.* 19(3):207–217.
4. Poutiers JM. Bivalves. Acephala, Lamellibranchia, Pelecypoda. 1998. In: Carpenter KE, Niem VH, editors. *FAO species identification guide for fishery purposes. The living marine resources of the Western Central Pacific. Vol. 1. Seaweeds, corals, bivalves, and gastropods.* Rome:FAO. pp. 123–362.
5. Wells SM. 1997. Giant clams: Status, trade and mariculture, and the role of CITES in management. Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK: IUCN-The World Conservation Union. pp. 77.
6. Ellis S. 1998. Spawning and early larval rearing of giant clams (Bivalvia: Tridacnidae). Center for Tropical and Subtropical Aquaculture Publication Number 130. pp. 55.
7. Jameson SC. 1976. Early life of the giant clam *Tridacna crocea* Lamarck, *Tridacna maxima* (Röding), and *Hippopus hippopus* (Linnaeus). *Pac Sci.* 30:219–233.
8. Benzie JAH, Williams ST. 1997. Genetic structure of giant clam (*Tridacna maxima*) populations in the west pacific is not consistent with dispersal by present-day ocean currents. *Evolution.* 51(3):768–783.
9. Ruppert EE, Fox RS, Barnes RD. 2004. *Invertebrate Zoology: A functional evolutionary approach.* 7th ed. Belmont, CA: Thomson-Brooks/Cole. pp. 990.
10. Jantzen C, Wild C, El-Zibdah M, Roa-Quiaoit HA, Haacke C, Richter C. 2008. Photosynthetic performance of giant clams, *Tridacna maxima* and *T. squamosa*, Red Sea. *Mar Biol.* 155(2):211–21.
11. Green A, Craig P. 1999. Population size and structure of giant clams at Rose Atoll, an important refuge in the Samoan Archipelago. *Coral Reefs.* 18(3):205–211.
12. Smith SDA. 2011. Growth and population dynamics of the giant clam *Tridacna maxima* (Röding) at its southern limit of distribution in coastal, subtropical Eastern Australia. *Molluscan Res.* 31(1):37–41.








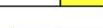




















Collector urchin - *Tripneustes gratilla*

Overall Vulnerability Rank = Very High ■

Biological Sensitivity = High ■

Climate Exposure = Very High ■

Data Quality = 36% of scores ≥ 2

<i>Tripneustes gratilla</i>		Expert Scores	Data Quality	Expert Scores Plots (Portion by Category)	
Sensitivity attributes	Habitat Specificity	1.4	2.8		<div>Low</div> <div>Moderate</div> <div>High</div> <div>Very High</div>
	Prey Specificity	1	2.8		
	Adult Mobility	3.1	3		
	Dispersal of Early Life Stages	1.8	2.4		
	Early Life History Survival and Settlement Requirements	2.1	2.2		
	Complexity in Reproductive Strategy	2.2	1.4		
	Spawning Cycle	2.8	2.6		
	Sensitivity to Temperature	2.1	2.2		
	Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification	3.6	2.6		
	Population Growth Rate	1.8	2.4		
	Stock Size/Status	2.2	2		
	Other Stressors	1.8	1.6		
	Sensitivity Score		High		
Exposure variables	Bottom Salinity	1	3		
	Bottom Temperature	1	3		
	Current EW	1.3	3		
	Current NS	1.3	3		
	Current Speed	1.3	3		
	Mixed Layer Depth	1	3		
	Ocean Acidification	4	3		
	Precipitation	1	3		
	Productivity	1.4	3		
	Sea Surface Temperature	4	3		
	Surface Chlorophyll	1.4	3		
	Surface Oxygen	4	3		
	Surface Salinity	1.3	3		
	Wind EW	1.1	3		
	Wind NS	1.1	3		
	Wind Speed	1.1	3		
	Exposure Score		Very High		
Overall Vulnerability Rank		Very High			

Collector Urchin (*Tripneustes gratilla*)

Overall Climate Vulnerability Rank: **[Very High]**. (100% certainty from bootstrap analysis).

Climate Exposure: **[Very High]**. Three exposure factors contributed to this score: Ocean Acidification (4.0), Sea Surface Temperature (4.0), and Ocean Oxygen (4.0). Exposure to all three factors occurs during all life stages.

Biological Sensitivity: **[High]**. Two sensitivity attributes scored above a 3.0; Adult Mobility (3.1) and Sensitivity to Ocean Acidification (3.6).

Distributional Vulnerability Rank: **[High]**. Three attributes indicated high vulnerability to distribution shift: limited early life stage dispersal, high habitat specialization, and sensitivity to temperature. However, adult mobility was scored as low which may mitigate the propensity of the species to shift distribution.

Data Quality: 36% of the data quality scores were 2 or greater.

Climate Effects on Abundance and Distribution:

Tripneustes gratilla has a remarkably large geographic range, extending from east Africa to western America. It was formerly thought that the 5,000 km distance across very deep water between the central and eastern Pacific that caused the greatest separation within other genera of urchins also led to a separation between *T. gratilla* and *T. depressus*, but genetic analysis determined that they are a single species, *T. gratilla*, throughout the Indo-Pacific and eastern Pacific [1]. *T. ventricosus* occurs throughout the tropical Atlantic from Central America to Africa. The high fecundity and dispersal of *T. gratilla* keep little genetic structure from Africa to western America. This, along with the acceptance of *T. gratilla* of several habitats, a large depth range, and broad diet as a generalist herbivore and detritus feeder, suggest it is potentially less affected by climate change than most other invertebrates. Although embryonic development from egg through early larval stages is normal between 22 °C and 29 °C [2], seawater warming above 29 °C might possibly have negative effects.

Life History Synopsis:

Intuitively, it would seem that echinoderms such as *Tripneustes gratilla* would be especially vulnerable to low pH because the basic frameworks of both adult and larval urchins are made of CaCO₃ which could dissolve at low pH. However, research has indicated that for urchins previously studied, about 150 genes are involved in upregulating calcium transport. These genes are activated in low pH conditions [3]. These genes were found in urchins but not in corals suggesting that urchins are possibly better able to function normally at low pH than corals. In fact, the echinoids were diverse in the Cretaceous and early Cenozoic Periods when the ocean pH was as low as 7.4–7.6 [4–6]. Although scleractinian corals were also diverse and common in the Cretaceous, they left fossil calices, but did not build reefs as extensively as they do now.

Laboratory experiments with echinoid larvae at low pH also showed that larval morphology was not changed in form and larval survival was not affected until the pH was below 7.0 [7]. The pH of the oceans will never go below 7.4–7.6 so it is unlikely that direct effects of low pH on larval *T. gratilla* will ever occur. However, the larvae raised at low pH with normal temperatures grew more slowly [8]. Although their survival in laboratory experiments was not directly affected, growing slower or smaller in nature extends the especially vulnerable stages of larval lives at lower sizes, which likely increases risk of

predation. On the other hand, increased CO₂ tends to lead to warmer seawater as it leads to lower pH, and the larvae tend to grow faster in warmer temperatures. Laboratory experiments demonstrated that the effects of lower pH and concomitantly warmer waters on speed of larval growth tend to cancel each other [8]. However, it is possible that early embryonic and larval development might be adversely affected when the water temperature goes above 29 °C.

Adult *T. gratilla* may be more resilient in a changing climate than many invertebrates because of their broad niche requirements. *T. gratilla* live in a variety of habitats; their depth distribution is to at least 75 m [9], and they are generalist herbivores and deposit feeders. This species has moderate motility and can travel hundreds of meters [10] which potentially allows it to continue to gather to reproduce effectively at relatively low abundances, unlike sessile or slow-moving animals such as holothuroids.

References

1. Lessios HA, Kane J, Robertson DR. 2003. Phylogeography of the pantropical sea urchin *Tripneustes*: Contrasting patterns of population structure between oceans. *Evolution*. 57(9):2026–36.
2. Rahman S, Tsuchiya M, Uehara T. 2009. Effects of temperature on hatching rate, embryonic development and early larval survival of the edible sea urchin, *Tripneustes gratilla*. *Biologia*. 64:768–75.
3. Gewin V. 2012. Sea urchins can cope with acidic waters. *Nature*. Available from: <https://www.nature.com/news/sea-urchins-can-cope-with-acidic-waters-1.11482>
4. Hönisch B, Ridgwell A, Schmidt DN, Thomas E, Gibbs SJ, Sluijs A, Zeebe RE, Kump L, Martindale RC, Green SE. 2012. The geological record of ocean acidification. *Science*. 335(6072):1058–1063.
5. Pearson P, Palmer M. 2000. Atmospheric carbon dioxide over the past 60 million years. *Nature*. 406:695–699.
6. Zeebe RE, Zachos JC. 2013. Long-term legacy of massive carbon input to the earth system: Anthropocene versus eocene. *Philos Trans R Soc A*. 371:20120006.
7. Clark D, Lamare M, Barker M. 2009. Response of sea urchin pluteus larvae (Echinodermata: Echinoidea) to reduced seawater pH: a comparison among a tropical, temperate, and a polar species. *Mar Biol*. 156(6):1125–1137.
8. Sheppard Brennand H, Soars N, Dworjanyn SA, Davis AR, Byrne M. 2010. Impact of ocean warming and ocean acidification on larval development and calcification in the sea urchin *Tripneustes gratilla*. *PLoS One*. 5(6):e11372-.
9. Mortensen T. A monograph of the Echinoidea. Copenhagen:CA Reitzel; 1928–1951.
10. Pan RT. 2012. The growth and survival of the sea urchin *Tripneustes Gratilla*, a possible biocontrol agent for invasive macroalgae. M.Sc. Thesis, The University of Hawaii. Available from: https://scholarspace.manoa.hawaii.edu/bitstream/10125/101316/Pan_Rodolf_r.pdf